

Bayesian analysis in nuclear physics

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This presentation available at
<http://www.lanl.gov/home/kmh/>

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Tutorial 3

Bayesian data analysis

Goals of tutorials

My aim is to

- present overview of Bayesian and probabilistic modeling
- cover basic Bayesian methodology relevant to nuclear physics, especially cross section evaluation
- point way to how to do it

- convince you that
 - ▶ Bayesian analysis is a reasonable approach to coping with measurement uncertainty

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- Many thanks to my T-16 colleagues
 - ▶ Gerry Hale, Toshihiko Kawano, Patrick Talou

Outline – four tutorials

1. Bayesian approach

probability – quantifies our degree of uncertainty
Bayes law and prior probabilities

2. Bayesian modeling

Peelle's pertinent puzzle
Monte Carlo techniques; quasi-Monte Carlo
Bayesian update of cross sections using Jezebel criticality expt.

3. Bayesian data analysis

linear fits to data with Bayesian interpretation
uncertainty in experimental measurements; systematic errors
treatment of outliers, discrepant data

4. Bayesian calculations

Markov chain Monte Carlo technique
analysis of Rossi traces; alpha curve
background estimation in spectral data

Slides and bibliography

- ▶ These slides can be obtained by going to my public web page:
<http://public.lanl.gov/kmh/talks/>
 - link to **tutorial slides**
 - short **bibliography** relevant to topics covered in tutorial
 - other presentations, which contain more detail about material presented here
- ▶ Noteworthy books:
 - D. Sivia, *Data Analysis: A Bayesian Tutorial* (1996); lucid pedagogical development of the Bayesian approach with an experimental physics slant
 - D. L. Smith, *Probability, Statistics, and Data Uncertainties in Nuclear Science and Technology* (1991); lots of good advice relevant to cross-section evaluation
 - G. D'Agostini, *Bayesian Reasoning in Data Analysis: A Critical Review*, (World Scientific, New Jersey, 2003); Bayesian philosophy
 - A. Gelman et al., *Bayesian Data Analysis* (1995); statisticians' view
 - W. R. Gilks et al., *Markov Chain Monte Carlo in Practice* (1996); basic MCMC text

Types of measurement uncertainties

- Generally two major types of uncertainties
 - ▶ random uncertainty – different for each measurement of same quantity
 - in repeated measurements, get a different answer each time
 - often assumed to be statistically independent, but aren't always
 - ▶ systematic uncertainty – same for each measurement within a group
 - component of measurements that remains unchanged
 - for example, caused by error in calibration or zeroing
 - this kind of uncertainty needs more attention
- Nomenclature varies
 - ▶ physics – random uncertainty and systematic uncertainty
 - ▶ statistics – random and bias
 - metrology standards (NIST, ASME, ISO) – random and systematic uncertainties (now)
 - ▶ trend toward quoting **standard error**

Measurement uncertainties in cross sections

In cross-section experiments, sources of uncertainties include:

- Random uncertainties
 - ▶ counting statistics for primary process and monitoring process
 - ▶ background
- Systematic uncertainties
 - ▶ integrated beam intensity
 - ▶ target thickness, target impurities
 - ▶ detector efficiency
 - ▶ count rate corrections
 - ▶ geometry
 - ▶ corrections for contamination from other processes
- Try to reduce systematic uncertainties through calibration, design
- Random uncertainties usually easy to assess; systematic uncertainties require judgment

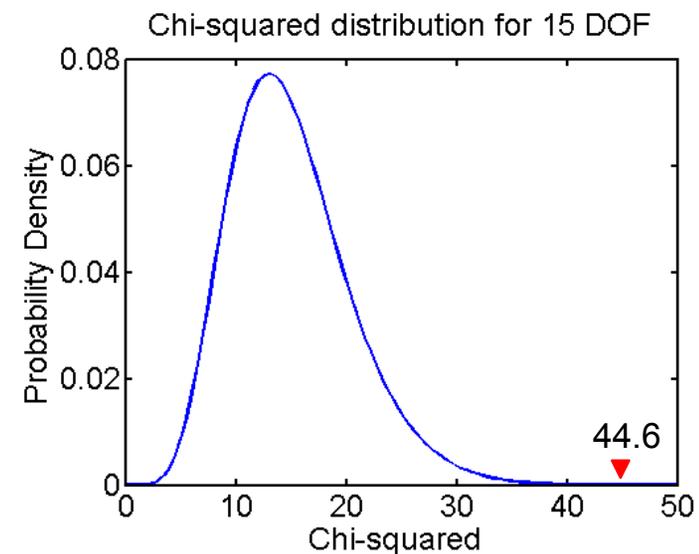
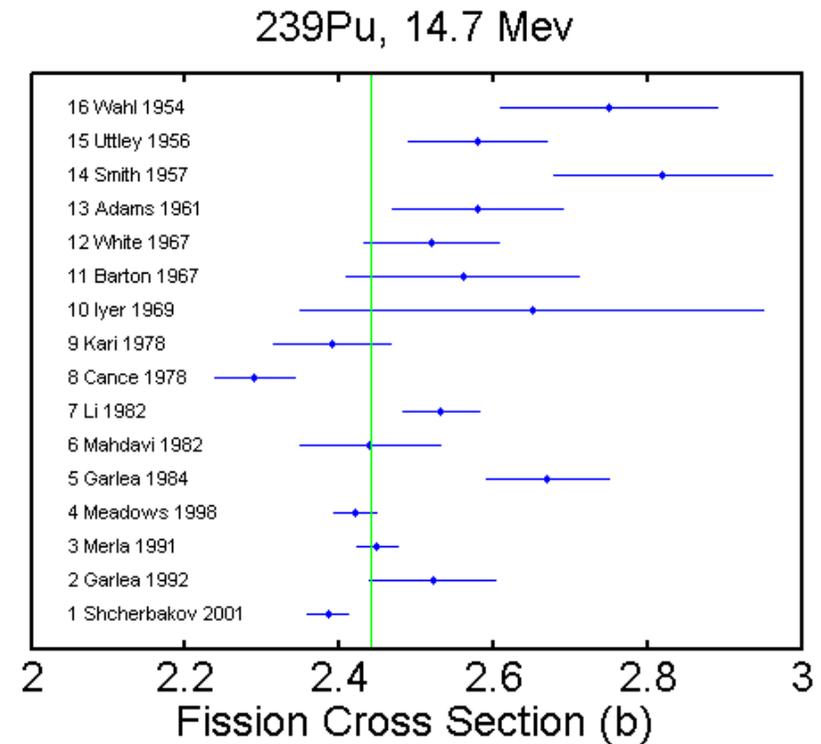
Characterization of measurement uncertainties

- The best analysis is based on a thorough understanding of probabilistic nature of the fluctuations in the data
- In nuclear physics we are fortunate to have control over measurements; we can calibrate and study apparatus
- Look closely at measurements to characterize random fluctuations
 - ▶ shape of pdf
 - ▶ standard deviation (variance) of fluctuations,
 - ▶ presence of outliers
 - ▶ covariance, correlation: $\text{cov}(\mathbf{d}) \equiv \mathbf{C}_d = \langle (\mathbf{d} - \hat{\mathbf{d}})(\mathbf{d} - \hat{\mathbf{d}})^T \rangle$
 - ▶ usually need to assume stationarity, same characteristics everywhere
 - ▶ autocorrelation function useful for estimating correlations

$$\rho(l) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N y(i)y(i-l)$$

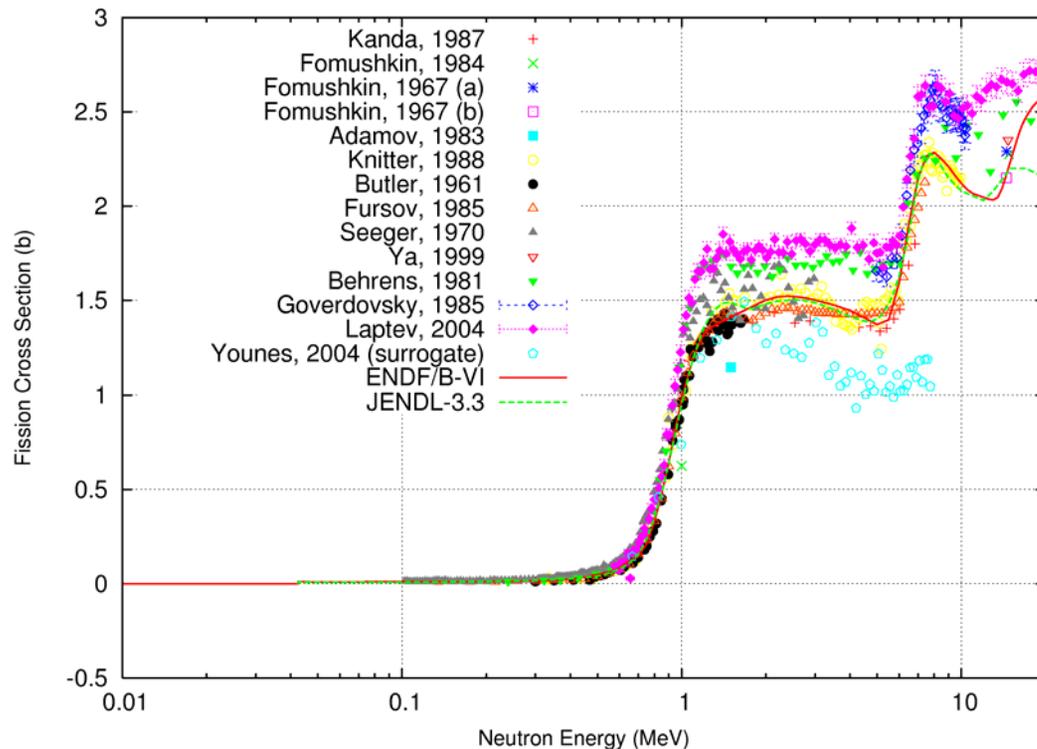
Neutron fission cross section data for ^{239}Pu

- Graph shows 16 measurements of fission cross-section for ^{239}Pu at 14.7 MeV
- Data exhibit fair amount of scatter
- Quoted error bars get smaller with time
- Minimum $\chi^2 = 44.6$ ($p = 10^{-4}$) indicates a problem
 - ▶ dispersion of data larger than quoted error bars by factor $\sqrt{3}$
 - ▶ outliers?; three data contribute 24 to χ^2 , more than half



Neutron fission cross-section data

^{243}Am fission cross section



plot from P. Talou

- Neutron cross sections measured by many experimenters
 - ▶ sometimes data sets differ significantly
 - ▶ often little information about uncertainties, esp. systematic errors
 - ▶ many directly measure ratios of cross sections, e.g., $^{243}\text{Am}/^{235}\text{U}$
 - ▶ thorough analysis must take into account all discrepancies

Inference using Bayes rule

- We wish to infer the parameters \mathbf{a} of a model M , based on data \mathbf{d}
- Use Bayes rule, which gives the *posterior*:

$$p(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{d}, M, I) \propto p(\mathbf{d} | \mathbf{a}, M, I) p(\mathbf{a} | M, I)$$

- ▶ where I represents general information we have about the situation
 - ▶ $p(\mathbf{d} | \mathbf{a}, M, I)$ is the *likelihood*, the probability of the observed data, given the parameters, model, and general info
 - ▶ $p(\mathbf{a} | M, I)$ is the *prior*, which represents what we know about the parameters exclusive of the data
- Note that inference requires specification of the prior

Likelihood

- Form of the likelihood $p(\mathbf{d} | \mathbf{a}, I)$ based on how we model the uncertainties in the measurements \mathbf{d}
- Choose pdf that appropriately describes uncertainties in data
 - ▶ Gaussian – good generic choice
 - ▶ Poisson – counting experiments
 - ▶ Binomial – binary measurements (coin toss ...)
- Outliers exist
 - ▶ likelihood should have a long tail, i.e., there is some probability of large fluctuation
- Systematic errors
 - ▶ caused by effects common to many (all) measurements
 - ▶ model by introducing variable that affects many (all) measurements; marginalize out

The model and parameter inference

- We write the model as

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})$$

- ▶ where \mathbf{y} is a vector of physical quantities, which is modeled as a function of the independent variables vector \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{a} represents the parameter vector for the model
- In inference, the aim is to determine:
 - ▶ the parameters \mathbf{a} from a set of n measurements d_i of \mathbf{y} under specified conditions x_i
 - ▶ **and** the uncertainties in the parameter values
- This process is called parameter inference, model fitting (or regression); however, uncertainty analysis is often not done, only parameters estimated

The likelihood and chi-squared

- The form of the likelihood $p(\mathbf{d} | \mathbf{a}, I)$ depends on how we model the uncertainties in the measurements \mathbf{d}
- Assuming the error in each measurement d_i is normally (Gaussian) distributed with zero mean and variance σ_i^2 , and that the errors are statistically independent,

$$p(\mathbf{d} | \mathbf{a}) \propto \prod_i \exp\left[-\frac{[d_i - y_i(\mathbf{a})]^2}{2\sigma_i^2}\right]$$

- where y_i is the value predicted for parameter set \mathbf{a}
- The above exponent is one-half chi squared

$$\chi^2 = -2\log[p(\mathbf{d} | \mathbf{a})] = \sum_i \left[\frac{[d_i - y_i(\mathbf{a})]^2}{\sigma_i^2} \right]$$

- For this error model, likelihood is $p(\mathbf{d} | \mathbf{a}) \propto \exp(-\frac{1}{2} \chi^2)$

Likelihood analysis

- For a non-informative **uniform prior**, the posterior is proportional to the likelihood
- Given the relationship between chi-squared and the likelihood, the posterior is

$$p(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{d}) \propto p(\mathbf{d} | \mathbf{a}) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \chi^2\right)$$

- Parameter estimation based on **maximum likelihood** is equivalent to that based on **minimum chi squared** (or **least squares**)

Likelihood analysis – chi squared

- When the errors in each measurement are Gaussian distributed and independent, likelihood is related to chi squared:

$$p(\mathbf{d} | \mathbf{a}) \propto \exp(-\frac{1}{2} \chi^2) = \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_i \left[\frac{[d_i - y_i(\mathbf{a})]^2}{\sigma_i^2} \right] \right\}$$

- near minimum, χ^2 is approximately quadratic in the parameters \mathbf{a}

$$\chi^2(\mathbf{a}) = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{a} - \hat{\mathbf{a}})^T \mathbf{K} (\mathbf{a} - \hat{\mathbf{a}}) + \chi^2(\hat{\mathbf{a}})$$

- ▶ where $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ is the parameter vector at minimum χ^2 and \mathbf{K} is the χ^2 curvature matrix (aka the *Hessian*)
- The covariance matrix for the uncertainties in the estimated parameters is

$$\text{cov}(\mathbf{a}) \equiv \left\langle (\mathbf{a} - \hat{\mathbf{a}})(\mathbf{a} - \hat{\mathbf{a}})^T \right\rangle \equiv \mathbf{C} = 2\mathbf{K}^{-1}$$

Characterization of chi squared

- Expand vector \mathbf{y} around \mathbf{y}^0 , and approximate:

$$y_i = y_i(x_i, \mathbf{a}) = y_i^0 + \sum_j \left. \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial a_j} \right|_{\mathbf{a}^0} (a_j - a_j^0) + \dots$$

- The derivative matrix is called the *Jacobian*, \mathbf{J}
- Estimated parameters $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ minimize χ^2 (MAP estimate)
- As a function of \mathbf{a} , χ^2 is approximately quadratic in $\mathbf{a} - \hat{\mathbf{a}}$

$$\chi^2(\mathbf{a}) = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{a} - \hat{\mathbf{a}})^T \mathbf{K} (\mathbf{a} - \hat{\mathbf{a}}) + \chi^2(\hat{\mathbf{a}})$$

- ▶ where \mathbf{K} is the χ^2 curvature matrix (aka the *Hessian*);

$$[\mathbf{K}]_{jk} = \left. \frac{\partial^2 \chi^2}{\partial a_j \partial a_k} \right|_{\hat{\mathbf{a}}} ; \quad \mathbf{K} = 2\mathbf{J}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{J}^T ; \quad \mathbf{A} = \text{diag}(\sigma_1^{-2}, \sigma_2^{-2}, \sigma_3^{-2}, \dots)$$

- Jacobian useful for finding min. χ^2 , i.e., optimization

Multiple data sets and Gaussian prior

- Analysis of multiple data sets
 - ▶ to combine the data from multiple, independent data sets into a single analysis, the combined chi squared is

$$\chi_{all}^2 = \sum_k \chi_k^2$$

- ▶ where $p(\mathbf{d}_k | \mathbf{a}, I)$ is the likelihood from k th data set
- Include Gaussian priors through Bayes theorem

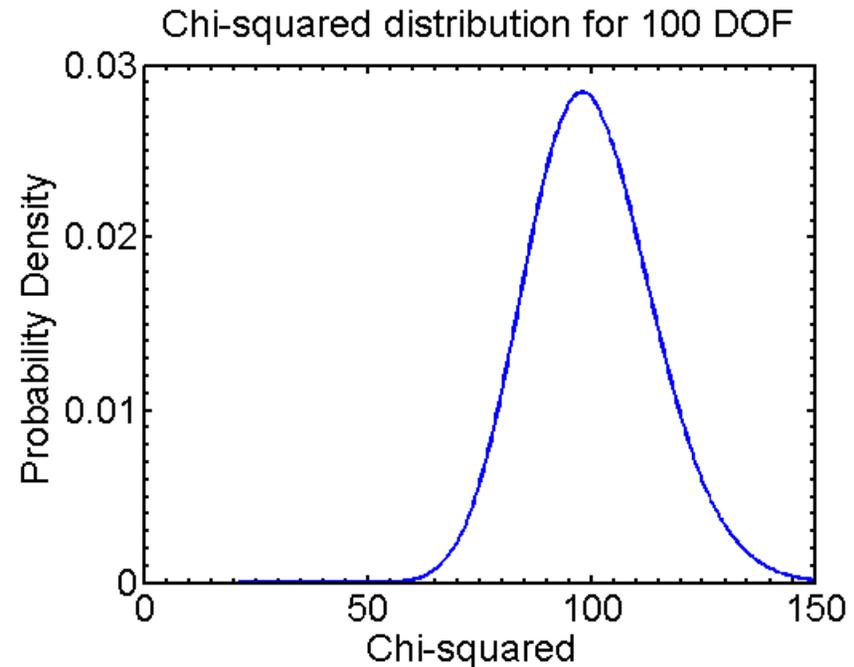
$$p(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{d}, I) \propto p(\mathbf{d} | \mathbf{a}, I) p(\mathbf{a} | I)$$

- ▶ for a Gaussian prior on a parameter a_j
- $$-\log p(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{d}, I) = \varphi(\mathbf{a}) = \frac{1}{2} \chi^2 + \frac{(a_j - \tilde{a}_j)^2}{2\sigma_j^2}$$

- ▶ where \tilde{a}_j is the default value for a_j and σ_j^2 is assumed variance

Chi-squared distribution

- Plot shows χ^2 distribution for number of degrees of freedom, $\nu = 100$
- Generally,
 - ▶ mean = ν
 - ▶ rms dev = $\sqrt{2\nu}$
- Cumulative distribution gives p value, probability of $\chi^2 \geq$ observed value
- p often used a measure of goodness of fit
- Checks self-consistency of models used to explain data (weakly)

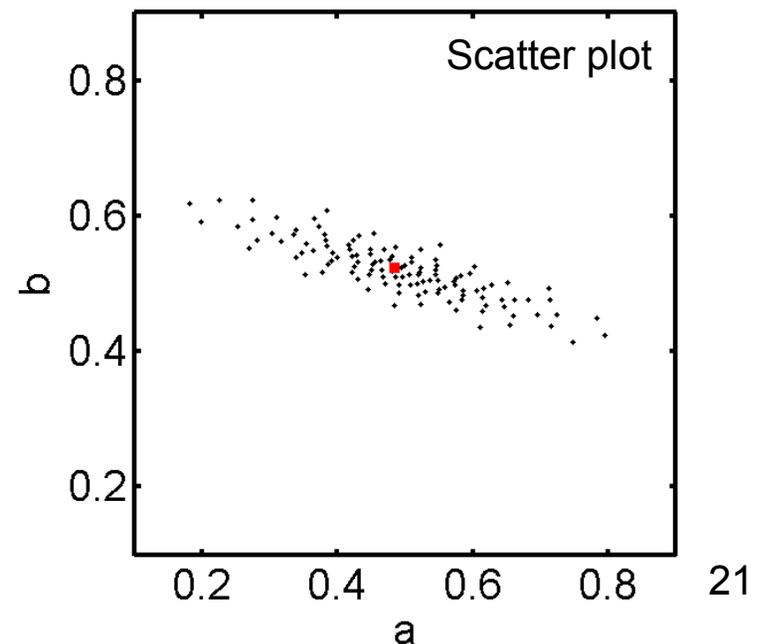
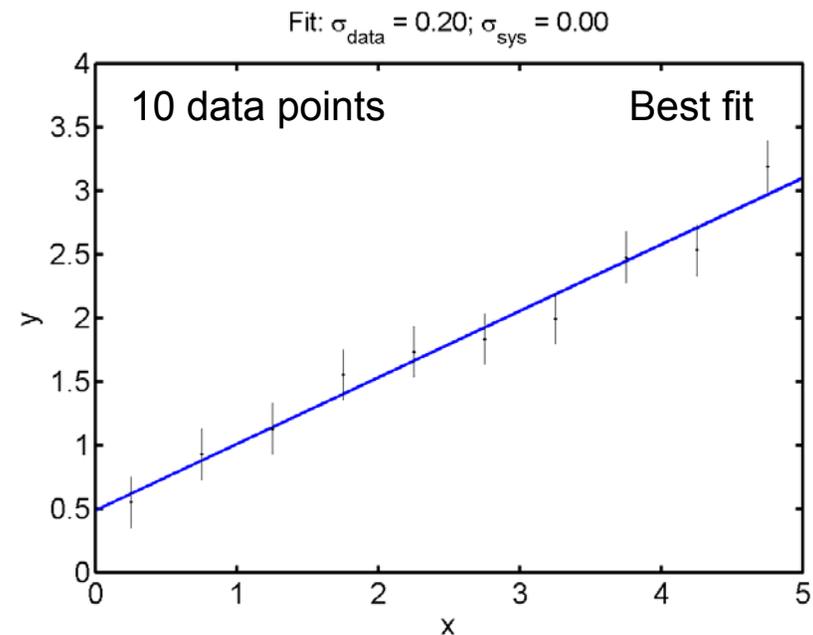


Goodness of fit

- Check of minimum chi-squared value only weakly confirms validity of models used
- Chi-squared value depends on numerous factors:
 - ▶ assumption that errors follow Gaussian distribution and are statistically independent
 - ▶ proper assignment of standard deviation of errors
 - ▶ correctness of model used to calculate measured quantity
 - ▶ measurements correspond to calculated quantity (proper measurement model)
- Thus, a reasonable chi-squared p value does not necessarily mean everything is OK, because there may be compensating effects

Fit linear function to data – minimum χ^2

- Linear model: $y = a + bx$
- Simulate 10 data points, $\sigma_y = 0.2$
exact values: $a = 0.5$ $b = 0.5$
- Determine parameters, intercept a and slope b , by minimizing chi-squared (standard least-squares analysis)
- Result: $\chi_{\min}^2 = 4.04$ $p = 0.775$
 $\hat{a} = 0.484$ $\sigma_a = 0.127$
 $\hat{b} = 0.523$ $\sigma_b = 0.044$
 $\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -0.867 \\ -0.867 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
- Strong correlations between parameters a and b



Sampling from correlated normal distribution

- Want to draw samples \mathbf{x} from multi-variate normal distribution with known covariance \mathbf{C}_x
- Important to include correlations among uncertainties, i.e., off-diagonal elements
- Algorithm:

- ▶ perform eigenanalysis of covariance matrix of d dimensions

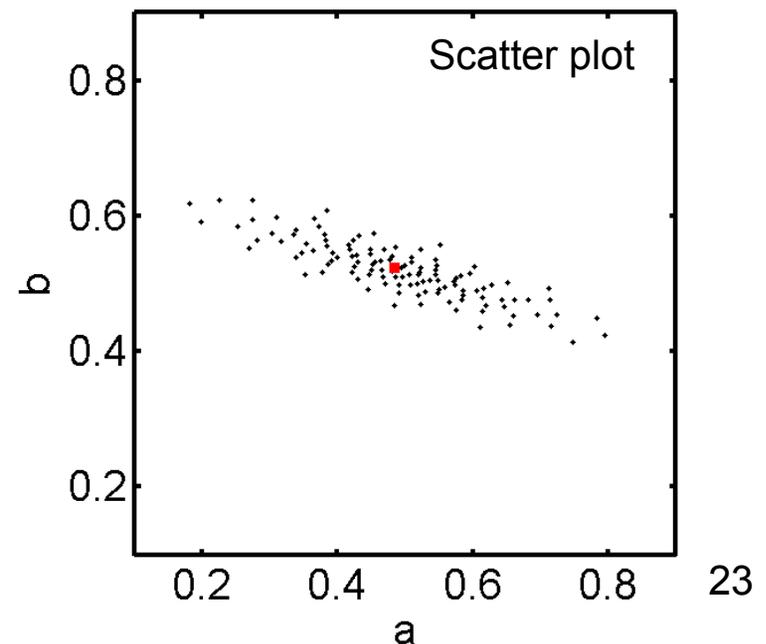
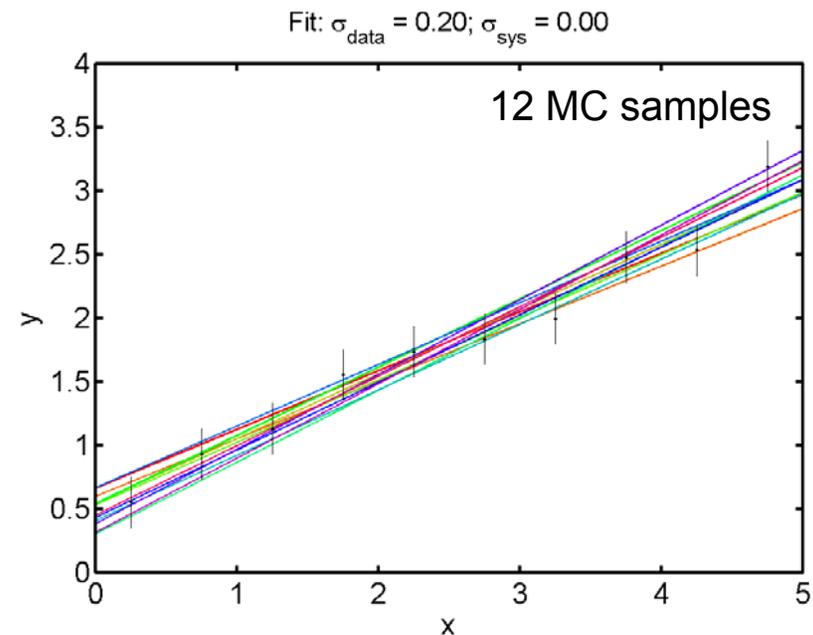
$$\mathbf{C}_x = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{U}^T$$

where \mathbf{U} is orthogonal matrix of eigenvectors and
 $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ is the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues

- ▶ draw d samples from unit variance normal distribution, ξ_i
- ▶ scale this vector by $\lambda_i^{1/2}$
- ▶ transform vector into parameter space using the eigenvector matrix
- ▶ to summarize: $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Lambda}^{1/2}\boldsymbol{\xi}$

Linear fit – uncertainty visualization

- Uncertainties in parameters are represented by Gaussian pdf in 2-D parameter space
 - ▶ correlations evidenced by tilt in scatter plot
 - ▶ points are samples from pdf
- Should focus on implied uncertainties in physical domain
 - ▶ model realizations drawn from parameter uncertainty pdf
 - ▶ these appear plausible – called **model checking**
 - ▶ this comparison to the original data confirms model adequacy
 - ▶ called **predictive distribution**



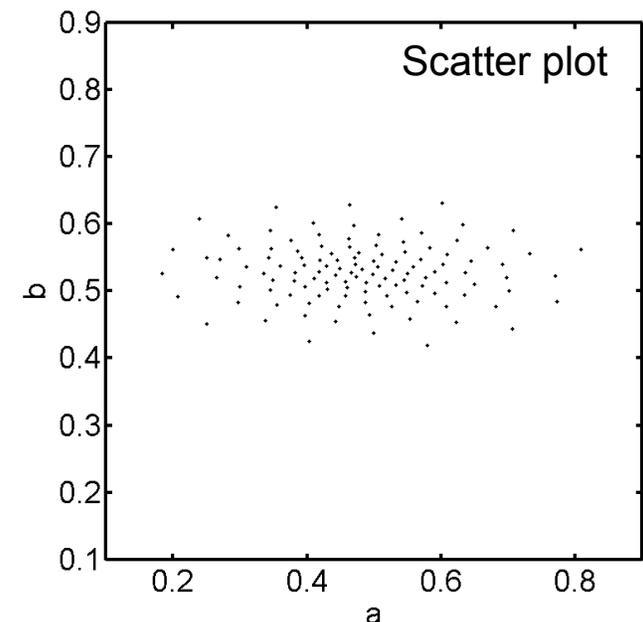
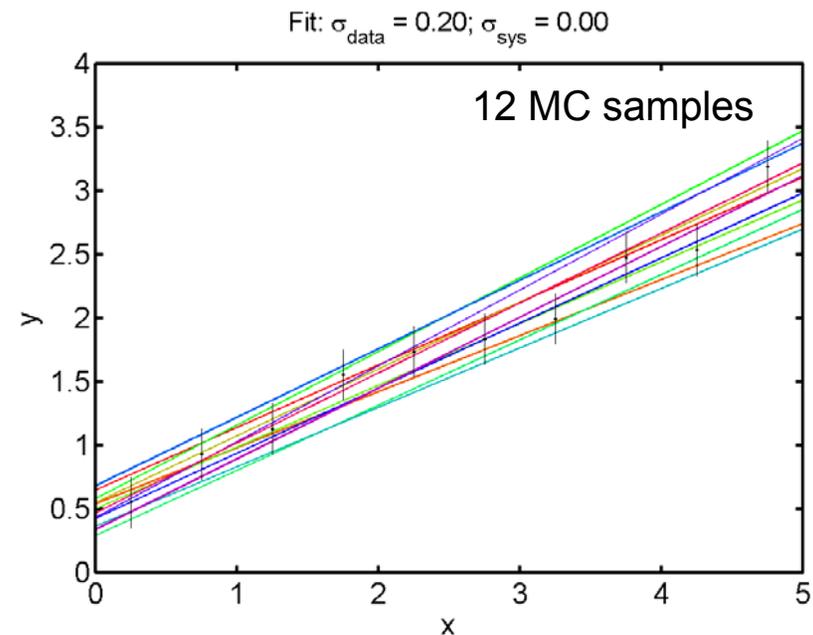
Linear fit – correlations are important

- Plots show what happens if off-diagonal terms of covariance matrix are ignored

- Correlation matrix is

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Model realizations show much wider dispersion than consistent with uncertainties in data
- No tilt in scatter plot – uncorrelated
- Correlations are important !



Probabilistic model for additive error

- Represent systematic additive uncertainty in measurements by common additive offset Δ : $y_i = a + bx_i + \varepsilon_i + \Delta = f(x_i; a, b) + \varepsilon_i + \Delta$
 - ▶ where the ε_i represent the random fluctuations
- Bayes law gives joint pdf for all the parameters

$$p(a, b, \Delta | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{y} | a, b, \Delta, \mathbf{x}) p(a) p(b) p(\Delta)$$

where priors $p(a)$, $p(b)$ are uniform and $p(\Delta)$ assumed normal

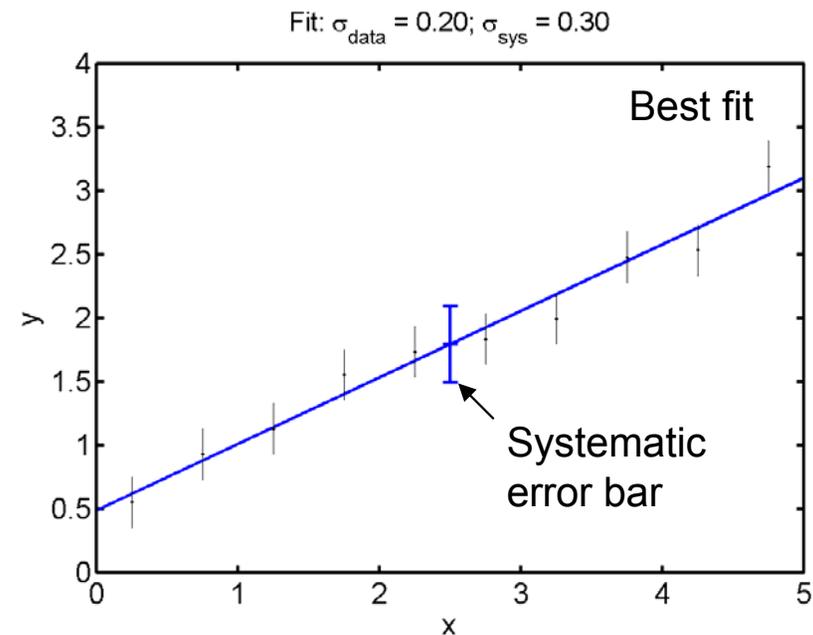
- Writing $p(a, b, \Delta | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) \propto \exp\{-\varphi\}$ and assuming normal distributions

$$2\varphi = \sum \frac{(y_i - f(x_i; a, b) - \Delta)^2}{\sigma_i^2} + \frac{\Delta^2}{\sigma_\Delta^2}$$

- Pdf for x obtained by integration: $p(a, b | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) = \int p(a, b, \Delta | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) d\Delta$
- This model equivalent to standard least-squares approach by including Δ in fit, and using just results for a and b

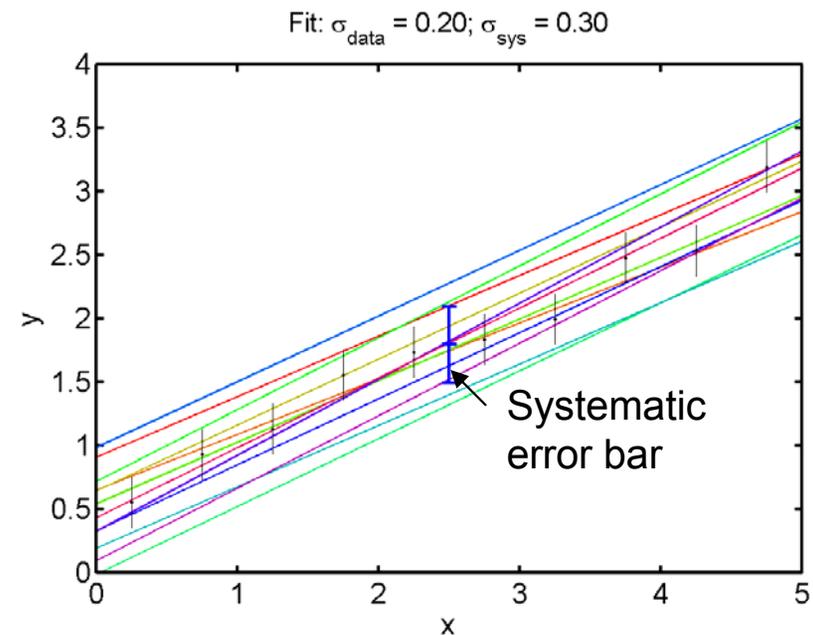
Linear fit – systematic uncertainty

- Introduce systematic offset Δ with uncertainty $\sigma_{\Delta} = 0.3$
- Linear model: $y = a + bx + \Delta$
- Determine parameters, a , b , and offset Δ by minimizing chi-squared (standard least-squares analysis)
- Result: $\hat{\Delta} = 0$
 $\hat{a} = 0.484 \quad \sigma_a = 0.326$
 $\hat{b} = 0.523 \quad \sigma_b = 0.044$
 $\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -0.338 \\ -0.338 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
- Same parameters, but σ_a much larger



Linear fit – systematic uncertainty

- Show uncertainties in inferred models
 - ▶ colored lines are model realizations drawn from parameter uncertainty pdf
 - ▶ these appear plausible, considering additional systematic uncertainty, $\sigma_{\Delta} = 0.3$

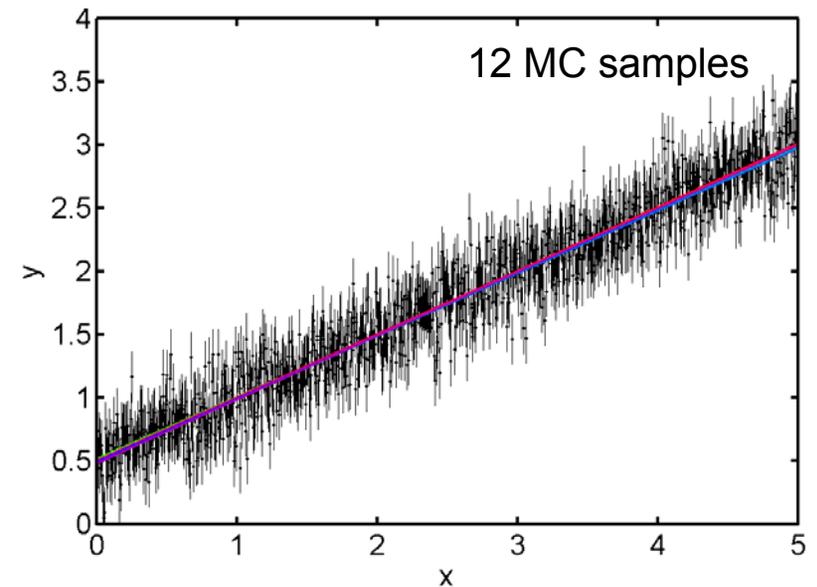
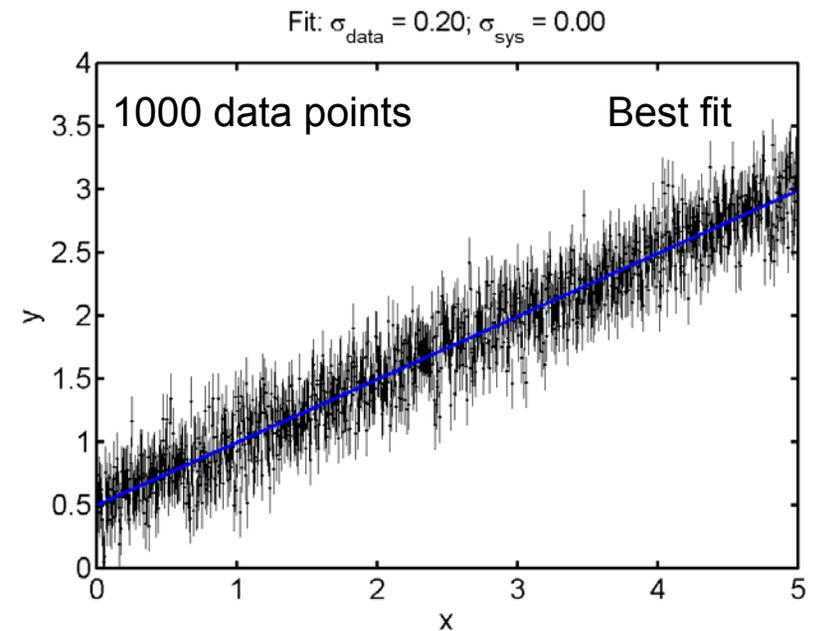


Role of simulated data

- Simulated data are crucially important for testing algorithms
 - ▶ treat simulated data as is actual measurements
 - ▶ can compare algorithmic results with known true values
 - ▶ can test how well algorithm copes with specific data deficiencies
 - ▶ aid in debugging computer code, underlying ideas
- Important to mimic real data
 - ▶ characteristics of measurement fluctuations (noise)
 - ▶ limited resolution (blur) of signal
 - ▶ systematic effects

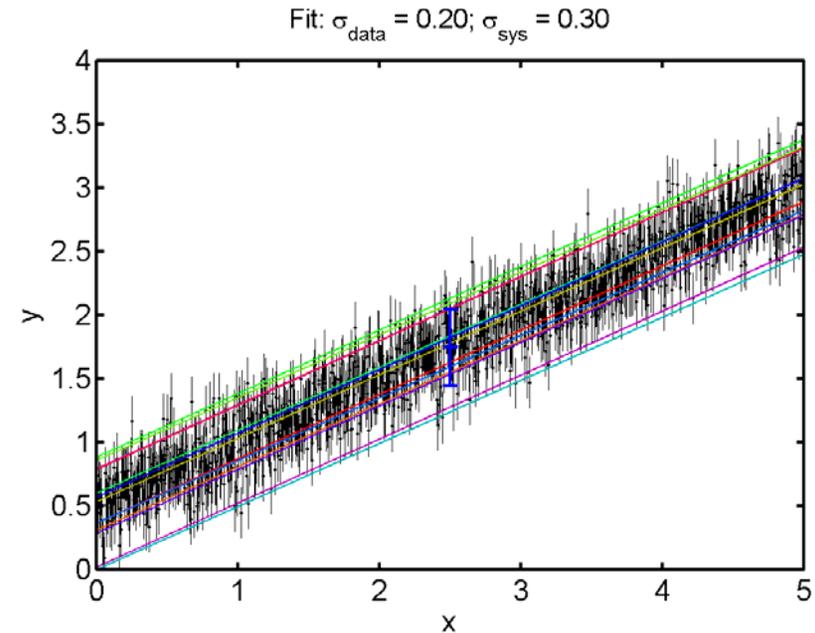
Linear fit to many data

- Linear model: $y = a + bx$
- Simulate 1000 data points, $\sigma_y = 0.2$
exact values: $a = 0.5$ $b = 0.5$
- Determine parameters by minimizing chi-squared
- Result: $\chi^2_{\min} = 972.0$ $p = 0.717$
 $\hat{a} = 0.496$ $\sigma_a = 0.0126$
 $\hat{b} = 0.499$ $\sigma_b = 0.0044$
$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -0.866 \\ -0.866 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
- Standard errors are reduced by factor of 10 through data averaging
- Is this reasonable?



Linear fit to many data - systematic uncertainty

- Introduce systematic offset Δ with uncertainty $\sigma_{\Delta} = 0.3$
- Linear model: $y = a + bx + \Delta$
- Determine parameters, a , b , and offset Δ by minimizing chi-squared (standard least-squares analysis)
- Result: $\hat{\Delta} = 0$
 $\hat{a} = 0.496$ $\sigma_a = 0.300$
 $\hat{b} = 0.499$ $\sigma_b = 0.0044$
 $\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -0.036 \\ -0.036 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
- Same fit, but σ_a dominated by σ_{Δ}
- Uncertainty in slope still small

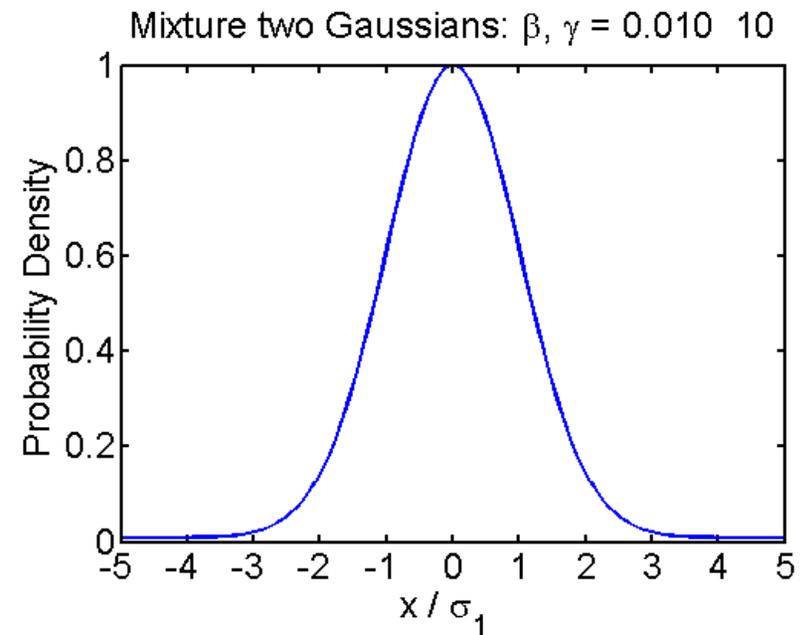


Outliers

- Measurements that differ from true value by more than expected
- Often caused by mistakes
 - ▶ every experimenter knows mistakes happen!
- Can accommodate in likelihood function by including long tail
- Simple model: likelihood is mixture of two Gaussians

$$(1 - \beta) \exp\left\{-\frac{(x - m)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\} + \beta \exp\left\{-\frac{(x - m)^2}{2\gamma\sigma^2}\right\}$$

- Long tail includes possibility of large deviation from true value
- Outlier-tolerant analysis generally called “robust estimation”



Linear fit – outliers

- Outliers pose significant problem for min χ^2 algorithm
- Create outlier by artificially perturbing third point
- Min- χ^2 results in large shift of fitted line:

$$\chi_{\min}^2 = 85.6 \quad p = 10^{-15}$$

$$\hat{a} = 0.987 \quad \sigma_a = 0.180$$

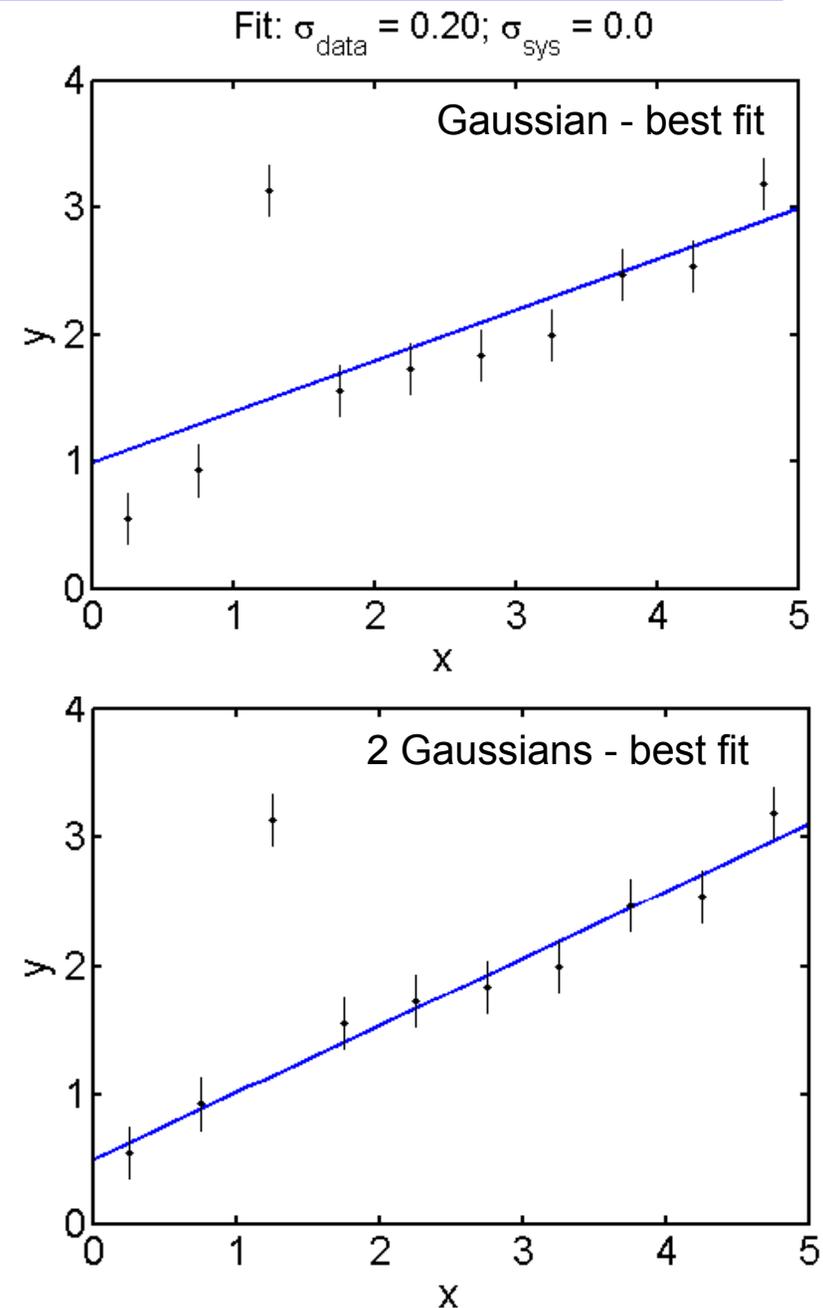
$$\hat{b} = 0.402 \quad \sigma_b = 0.062$$

- Two-Gaussian likelihood handles outlier very well

- ▶ fit is nearly the same as before

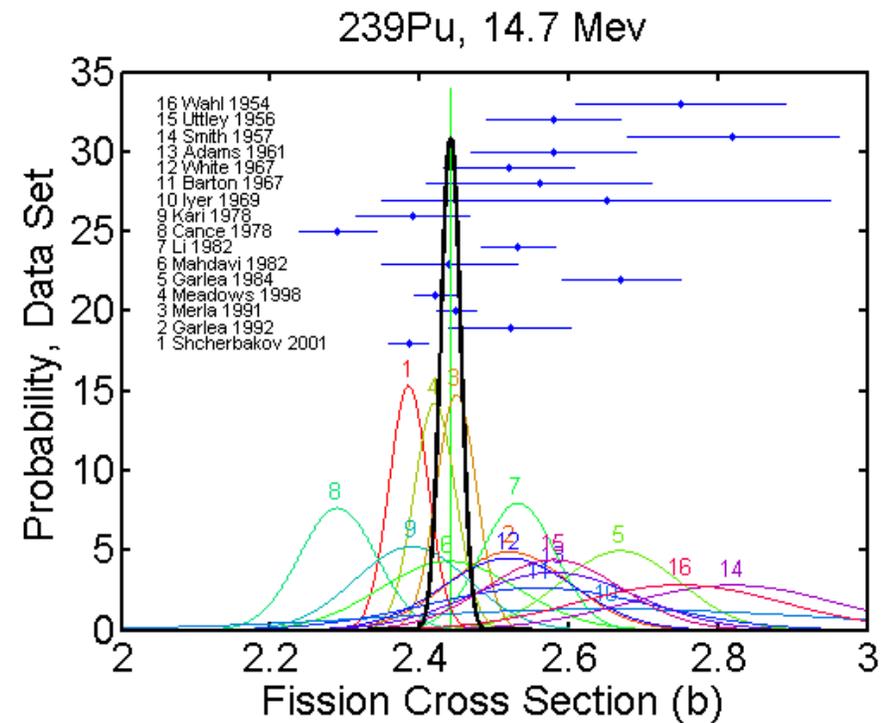
$$\hat{a} = 0.494 \quad \sigma_a = 0.140$$

$$\hat{b} = 0.520 \quad \sigma_b = 0.043$$



^{239}Pu cross sections – Gaussian likelihood

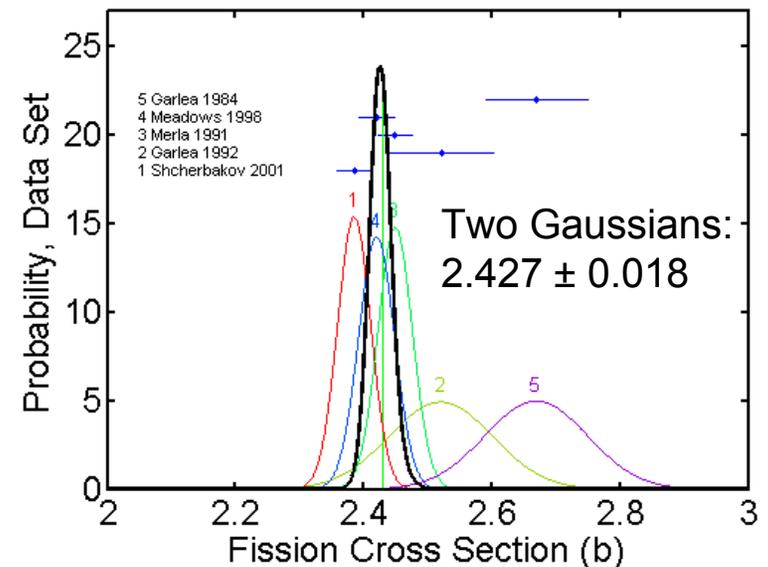
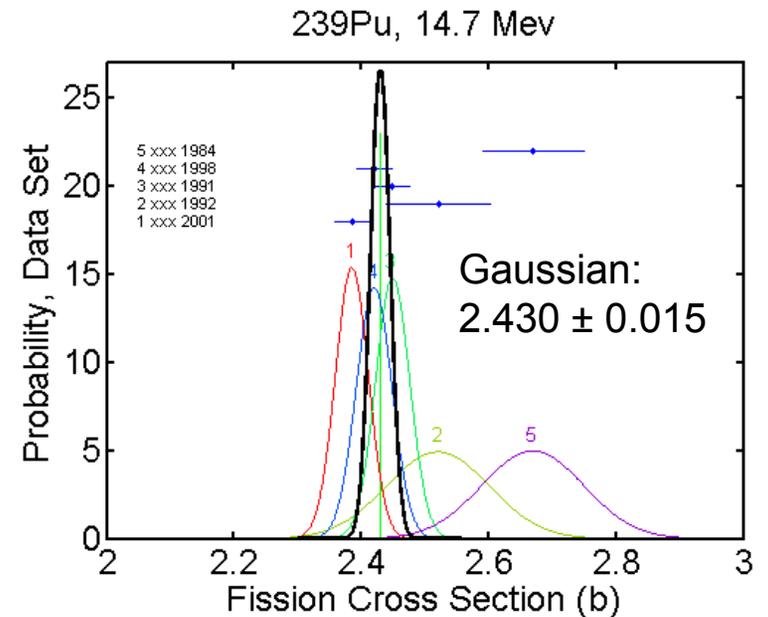
- With Gaussian likelihood (min χ^2) yields
 - ▶ $\chi^2 = 44.7$, $p = 0.009\%$ for 15 DOF
 2.441 ± 0.013
 - ▶ implausibly small uncertainty given three smallest uncerts.
 ≈ 0.027
- Each datum reduces the standard error of result, even if it does not agree with it!
 - ▶ consequence of Gaussian likelihood
$$\sigma^{-2} = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^{-2}$$
 - ▶ independent of where data lie!
which doesn't make sense



Gaussian: 2.441 ± 0.013

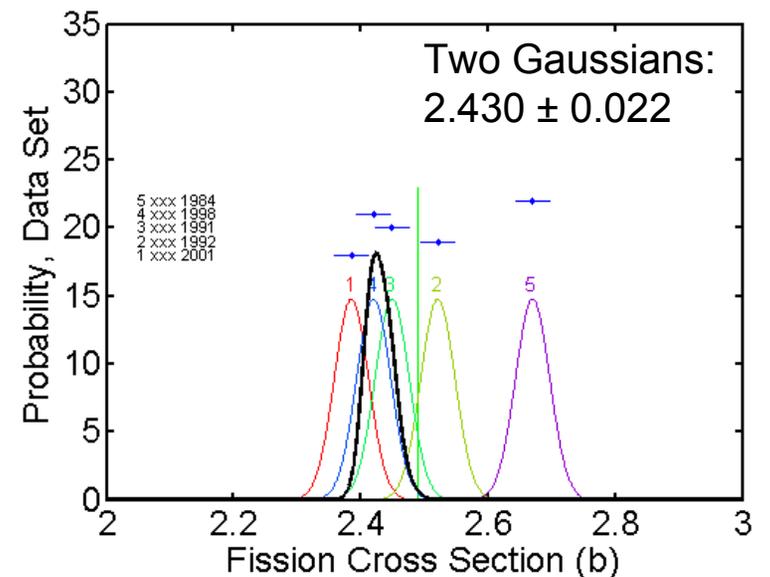
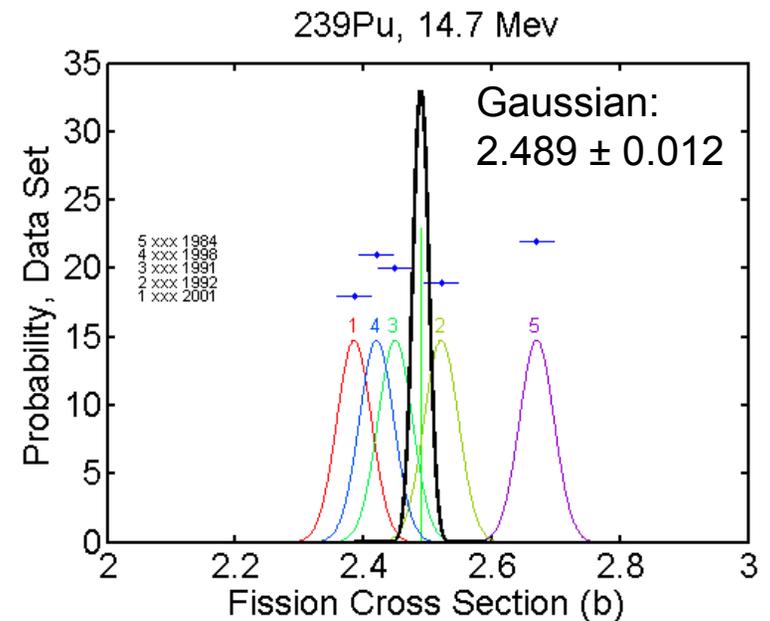
^{239}Pu cross sections – outlier-tolerant likelihood

- Use just latest five measurements
- Compare results from alternative likelihoods:
 - ▶ Gaussian: 2.430 ± 0.015
 $\chi^2 = 13.88$, $p = 0.8\%$ for 4 DOF
 - ▶ two Gaussians: 2.427 ± 0.018
- For two-Gaussian likelihood:
 - ▶ result not pulled as hard by outlier
 - ▶ σ is not as small, seemingly taking into account discrepant nature of data



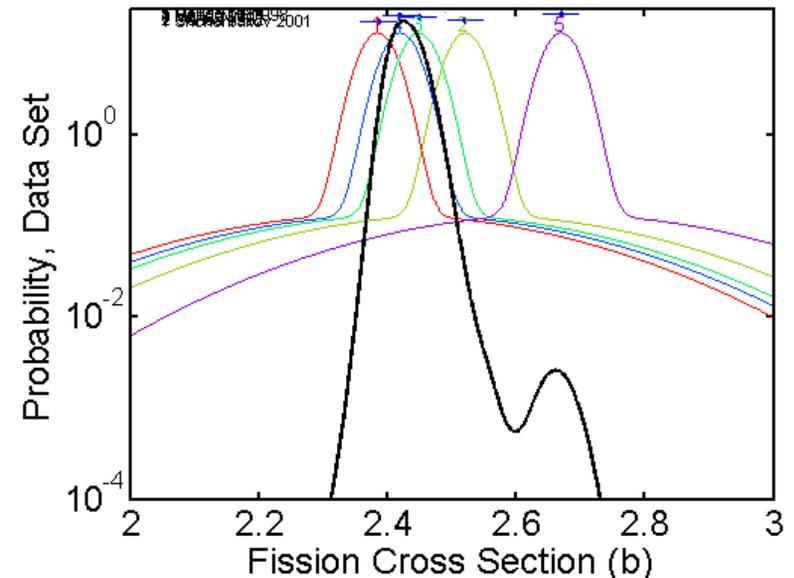
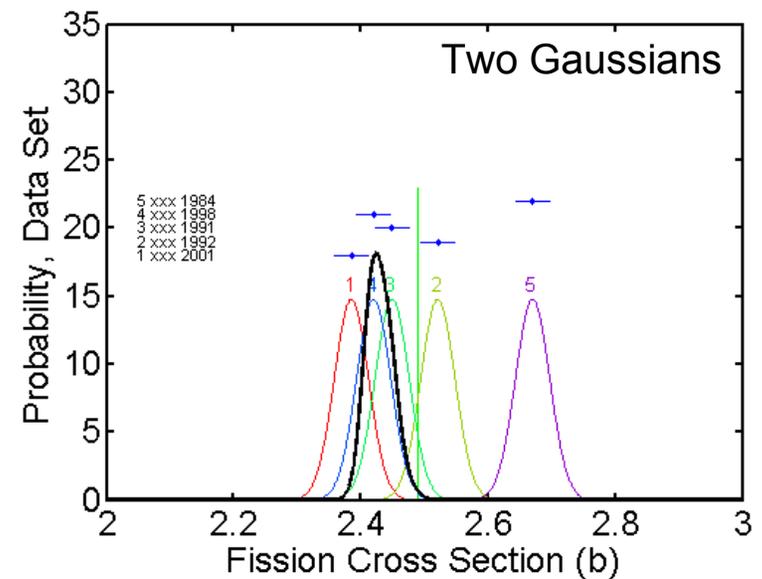
^{239}Pu cross sections – outlier-tolerant likelihood

- Use just latest five measurements
- To exaggerate outlier problem, set all standard errors = 0.027
- Compare results from alternative likelihoods:
 - ▶ Gaussian: 2.489 ± 0.012
 $\chi^2 = 69.9, p = 2 \times 10^{-14}$ for 4 DOF
 - ▶ two Gaussians: 2.430 ± 0.022
- For two-Gaussian likelihood:
 - ▶ result is close to cluster of three points; outliers have little effect
 - ▶ uncertainty is plausible



^{239}Pu cross sections – outlier-tolerant likelihood

- To exaggerate outlier problem, set all standard errors = 0.027, using just latest five measurements
- Plot shows pdfs on log scale, which shows what is going on with two-Gaussian likelihood
 - ▶ long tail of likelihood function for outlier does not influence peak shape near cluster of three measurements; for single Gaussian, it would make it narrower
 - ▶ long tails of likelihood functions from cluster allows outlier to produce a small secondary peak; has little effect on posterior mean



Hierarchical model – scale uncertainties

- When data disagree a lot, we may question whether quoted standard errors are correct
- Scale all σ by factor s : $\sigma = s \sigma_0$

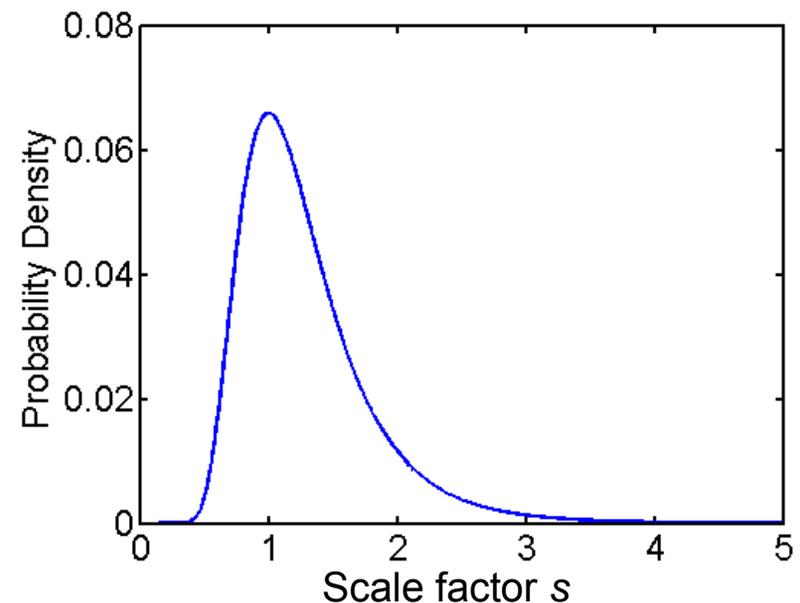
- Then marginalize over s

$$p(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{d}) = \int p(\mathbf{a}, s | \mathbf{d}) ds$$

$$p(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{d}) \propto \int p(\mathbf{d} | \mathbf{a}, s) p(\mathbf{a}, s) ds$$

$$p(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{d}) \propto \int p(\mathbf{d} | \mathbf{a}, s) p(\mathbf{a}) p(s) ds$$

- For prior $p(s)$, either use noninformative (flat in $\log(s)$) or one like shown in plot
- Let the data decide!
- This is called **hierarchical model** because properties of one pdf, the likelihood, are specified by another pdf



^{239}Pu cross sections – scale uncertainties

- Accommodate large dispersion in data by scaling all σ by factor s :

$$\sigma = s \sigma_0 ; \sigma_0 = \text{quoted stand. err.}$$

- For likelihood, use Gaussian with scaled σ

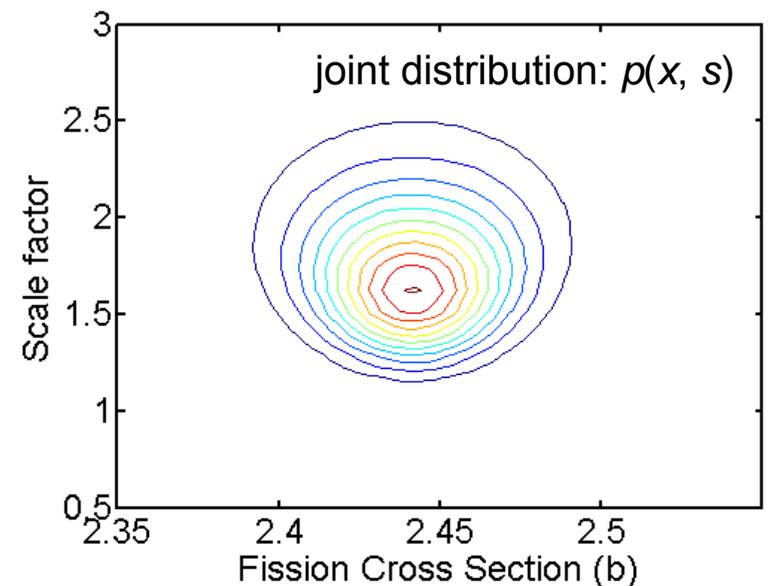
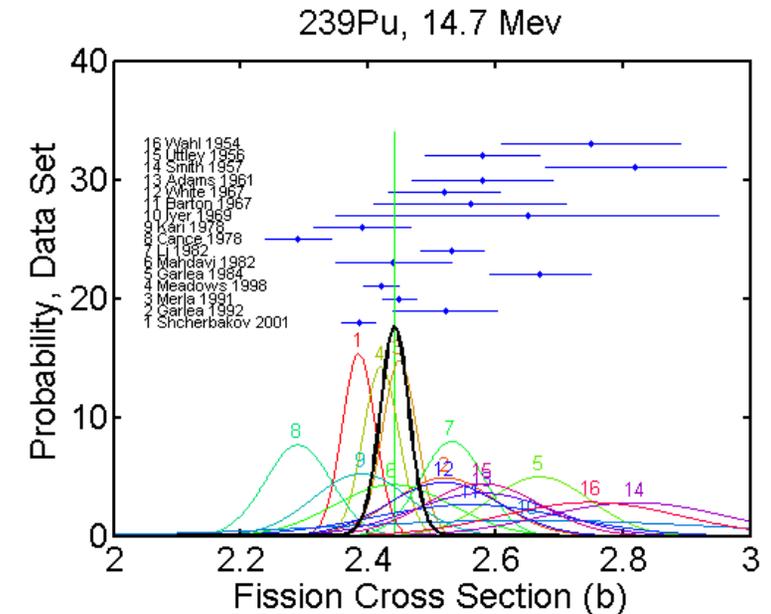
$$p(\mathbf{d} | x, s) \propto \frac{1}{s^n} \exp\left(-\frac{\chi_0^2}{2s^2}\right)$$

- For prior $p(s)$, use non-informative prior for scaling parameter $p(s) \propto 1/s$
- Bottom plot shows joint posterior pdf
- Marginalize over s :

$$p(x | \mathbf{d}) \propto \int p(\mathbf{d} | x, s) p(x) p(s) ds$$

to get posterior for x (top plot)

- Result is: 2.441 ± 0.024 ;
very plausible uncertainty



^{239}Pu cross sections – scale uncertainties

- To obtain the posterior for the scaling parameter s , marginalize joint posterior over x :

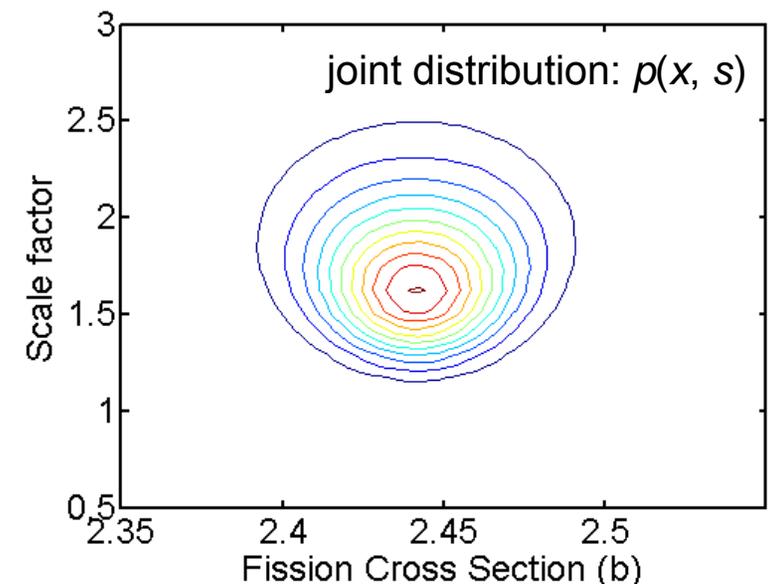
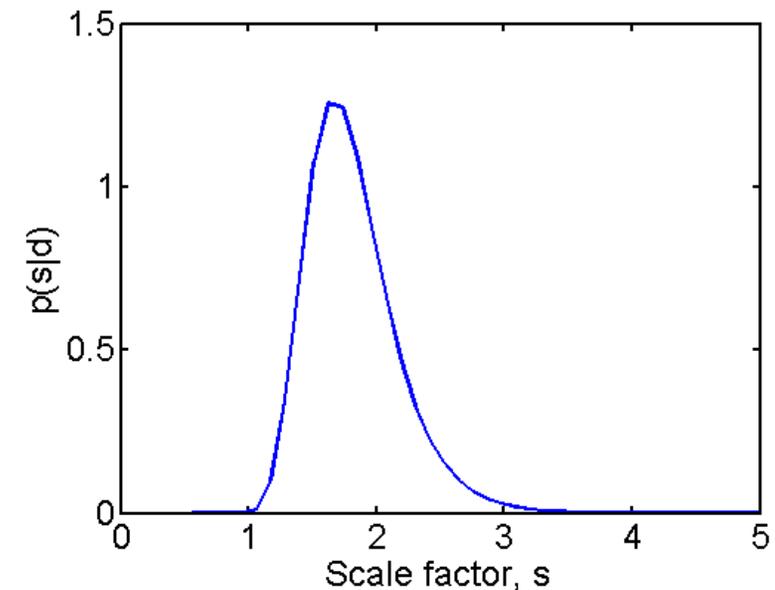
$$p(s | \mathbf{d}) \propto \int p(\mathbf{d} | x, s) p(x) p(s) dx$$

- Plot (top) shows result

- ▶ maximum at about 1.7, $\approx \sqrt{\frac{\chi^2}{\text{DOF}}}$ for original fit
- ▶ however, this result is different from just scaling σ to make χ^2 per DOF unity
- ▶ it allows for a distribution in s , taking into account that s is uncertain

- This model can be extended to allow each σ_i to be scaled separately

- ▶ prior on s_i could reflect our confidence in quoted σ_i for each experiment



Summary

In this tutorial:

- Types of uncertainties in measurements – random and systematic
- Uniform prior \Rightarrow likelihood analysis $\Rightarrow \chi^2$ analysis
- Used straight line fit to illustrate various Bayesian concepts and models
 - ▶ posterior sampling; predictive distribution and model checking
 - ▶ systematic uncertainties
 - ▶ averaging over many measurements
 - ▶ outliers
- Studied Pu cross-section data at 14.7 MeV
 - ▶ outlier-tolerant likelihood
 - ▶ scaling of quoted standard errors using a distribution of scales, which is determined by input data